



Computing global and diffuse solar hourly irradiation on clear sky. Review and testing of 54 models

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ABSTRACT

Fifty-four broad band models for computation of global and diffuse irradiance on horizontal surface are shortly presented and tested. The input data for these models consist of surface meteorological data, atmospheric column integrated data and data derived from satellite measurements. The testing procedure is performed for two meteorological stations in Romania (South-Eastern Europe). The testing procedure consists of forty-two stages intended to provide information about the sensitivity of the models to various sets of input data. There is no model to be ranked “the best” for all sets of input data. Very simple models as well as more complex models may belong to the category of “good models”. The best models for solar global radiation computation are, on equal-footing, ESRA3, Ineichen, METSTAT and REST2 (version 81). The second best models are, on equal-footing, Bird, CEM and Paulescu & Schlett. The best models for solar diffuse radiation computation are, on equal-footing, ASHRAE2005 and King. The second best model is MAC model. The best models for computation of both global and diffuse radiation are, on equal-footing, ASHRAE 1972, Biga, Ineichen and REST2 (version 81). The second best is Paulescu & Schlett model.

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1. Introduction

The appropriate design of many solar energy devices requires a detailed knowledge of solar global and diffuse radiation availability. Although there are several world maps of solar radiation, they are not detailed enough to be used for the determination of available solar energy on small areas. These circumstances have prompted the development of calculation procedures to provide radiation estimates for areas where measurements are not carried out and for situations when gaps in the measurement records occurred. Only a minority of these procedures has been validated by their authors, and usually under specific geographical or climatic circumstances only. To increase the confidence in modeled data accuracy there is a need for validation by independent groups and at a variety of test sites in many different climatic areas. Existing validation reports of the literature refer usually to a small number of models being inter-compared under specific climatic environments [1–10]. The correct validation and comparison of radiative models raise specific issues. For instance, different statistics may be used to evaluate the bias and random differences between the computed and measured data. Moreover, various ranking procedures can be used to compare the performance of models, yielding different results (for more detailed discussions, see [9]).

One problem occurring during models utilization is the large variety of input data that various users has at their disposal. It is quite usual that the user has access to databases which do not cover all the necessary input parameters of a specific model known to have good performance. In this case the user has to choose another model which fits the available input databases or, alternately, to prepare ad hoc input parameters for that specific model. This last solution sometimes involves data interpolation (or even extrapolation) and lower overall performance is then expected due to unavoidable propagation of errors.

The present investigation considers 54 clear-sky global and diffuse solar radiation models, i.e. a much larger sample of what the literature offers than in any previous study. Most of these models have been previously tested, under a few geographical conditions, during different time intervals and by using various testing procedures. How they compare in practice under specific and identical conditions is still not known.

Reference radiometric measurements (used as “ground truth”) are provided here by two meteorological and radiometric stations in South-Eastern Europe (Romania). These stations have provided good-quality routine data over many years. These are not high-end research-class stations, however, which means that the present study can be considered representative of what can be obtained at hundreds of similar stations over the world, rather than at a few specialized sites, like in some previous studies (e.g. [9,10]). These

studies considered the ideal case when all the investigated models’ inputs were measured locally at high frequency with high-quality instruments, so as to obtain the intrinsic performance of these models by avoiding propagation of errors. In contrast, the present investigation is much more pragmatic, since it uses “normal” radiation measurements and interpolated/extrapolated input data in both space and time to evaluate the “real world” performance of models under non-ideal conditions. Results have been presented for computation of global radiation [11] and diffuse radiation [12].

The objectives of this investigation are twofold. First, a review of models performance is made, by comparing their predictions under identical climate conditions and using a unique testing procedure for computation of global and diffuse radiation. Second, the sensitivity of each model’s performance on the accuracy in the atmospheric databases used as inputs is reported for both types of solar radiation.

2. Models

All the 54 models for computation of global and diffuse irradiance on horizontal surface are briefly described in what follows, using a call number (G001 to G054) for further reference. Some of these models were already tested in [9,10,13]. Fortran routines for all models may be found in [11,12]. The only input variable that is common to all models is the zenith angle, Z , which characterizes the sun position. For those models that refer to the solar constant, a common value of 1366.1 W/m^2 is used [14].

G001. ASHRAE 1972

This is a historical model still widely used by engineers to calculate solar heat gains and cooling loads in buildings, or insolation of simple solar systems. It is based on original empirical work conducted in the 1950s and 1960s [15]. For more details, see [3,10].

G002. ASHRAE 2005

ASHRAE 2005 is similar to ASHRAE model of 1972, but with some revised coefficients that appeared in [16].

G003. Badescu

This model is based on MAC (entry G029 in this list), and was proposed by Badescu [17].

G004. Bashahu

The composite model of Bashahu and Laplace [18] is based on the direct irradiance model of King and Buckius [19]; see entry G027 below.

G005. BCLSM

This is the model originally proposed by Barbaro et al. [20] and later modified in [1,4,21]. The original Barbaro equations are used here, with three modifications: (1) The units in Barbaro’s Eq. (10) are converted from $\text{cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ min})$ to W/m^2 , using $1 \text{ cal} = 4.184 \text{ J}$; (2) a multiplier of 0.1 that was apparently missing in the second part

of Eq. (10) has been added; and (3) Barbaro's Eq. (11) has been corrected for the missing $\cos Z$ term involving the zenith angle Z .

G006. Biga

This is the model proposed by Biga and Rosa [22].

G007. Bird model

This is the broadband transmittances and turbidity model according to Bird and Hulstrom [23,24]. For more details, see [10,25].

G008. CEM

This is the broadband model proposed in Atwater and Ball [26,27]. See details in [25].

G009. Chandra

In this model proposed by Chandra [28], the Linke turbidity coefficient, T_L , was originally a necessary input. This coefficient is obtained here from an average of four linear relationships between Angstrom's β coefficient and T_L , as proposed in [29–32]:

$$T_L = 2.1331 + 19.0204\beta. \quad (1)$$

T_L must be constrained to the range 2–5 to avoid divergence in Chandra's model. Chandra reported his results as absolute irradiances in $\text{cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ min})$, and used a solar constant of $1.94 \text{ cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ min})$ or $1353 \text{ W}/\text{m}^2$. His results are therefore divided here by 1.94 to obtain transmittances. This empirical model is based on measurements that certainly used the IPS56 radiometric scale, hence the multiplication by a correction factor of 1.022 [33] to comply with the current WRR scale (whose announcement by the World Meteorological Organization in 1978 is posterior to the historical data used for the model's development).

G010. CLS

This is the Cloud Layer Sunshine model developed by Suckling and Hay [34,35]. Note that precipitable water must be in cm, contrarily to what is indicated in the original papers.

G011. CPC2

This is the original CPC2 model by Gueymard [36] with revised optical masses [3].

G012. Dogniaux

This combines the models that have been proposed by Dogniaux for direct radiation [37] and for diffuse radiation [38]. The expression for T_L as a function of β is taken here from [39]. See [25] for details.

G013. DPP

This is the Daneshyar–Paltridge–Proctor model tested in [4,40] and also reviewed in [41]. The DPP acronym is from Badescu [4]. The direct irradiance at normal incidence is here from the original paper by Daneshyar [42] who used the model of Paltridge and Proctor [43], with corrected unit for Z . (It is actually degrees rather than radians as Badescu or Daneshyar suggested.) Coefficients for diffuse irradiance are given by Daneshyar as 0.218 and $0.299 \text{ cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ h})$ for the USA, as cited from [44]. Daneshyar also suggests 0.123 and 0.181 for Iran. However, their Eq. (5a) suggests that Z is in radians, which is not correct. Goswami and Klett [40] used the USA values, which are used here too, after conversion from $\text{cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ h})$ to W/m^2 . They used the correct unit for Z . Festa and Ratto [41] mention the Iran values, but with Z in radians rather than degrees, due to the confusion in the original papers. Badescu [4] also used radians, but with considerably larger values for the coefficients. To avoid further confusion, the modified equations as used here are provided below:

$$E_{bn} = 950[1 - \exp(-0.075h)] \quad (2)$$

$$E_d = 2.534 + 3.475h \quad (3)$$

Here E_{bn} and E_d stand for direct normal irradiance and diffuse irradiance, respectively, both measured in W/m^2 . The sun altitude angle is given by $h = 90 - Z$ where Z is in degrees.

G014. ESRA1

This is the model that was used to develop the European Solar Radiation Atlas, with the broadband transmittances and turbidity computed according to Rigollier et al. [45,46]. Here the Linke turbidity coefficient for an air mass of 2 is obtained from the new Page's formula, Eq. (19) of [47]. This revision was suggested in [48]. For more details, see [10].

G015. ESRA2

This model is the same as ESRA1, except that T_L is now obtained using formulae proposed in [7,49].

G016. ESRA3

This model is similar to ESRA1 or ESRA2, but T_L is obtained from the empirical formula of [50] as a function of precipitable water and Angstrom's β coefficient.

G017. ESRA4

This model is again similar to ESRA1, but T_L is obtained here from Eq. (1).

G018. HLJ

This is the broadband model developed by Hottel [51] for direct irradiance, and later modified in [52–56], who all added the diffuse transmittance formula of Liu and Jordan [57], based on Hottel's own recommendation. The Hottel equations corresponding to a visibility of 23 km are used here, which is consistent with the literature cited. For more details, see [10].

G019. Ideriah

This model is proposed in Ideriah [58] based on the direct irradiance model by King and Buckius (see entry G027 below).

G020. Ineichen

This model comes from Ineichen's parameterization of the SOLIS spectral model [59]. For more details, see [10].

G021. Iqbal A

This is "model A" from Iqbal [33]. It is adapted from the McMaster (MAC) model [60]. The original formulation for the Rayleigh transmittance is used here, rather than Iqbal's Eq. (7.4.8), which contains a typo. For more details, see Gueymard [3,10].

G022. Iqbal B

This is "model B" from Iqbal [33]. It is adapted from the Hoyt model [61]. For more details, see [3,10].

G023. Iqbal C

This is "model C" from Iqbal [33]. It is adapted from Bird's model (entry G005 above). For more details, see [3,10,25].

G024. Josefsson

This is the model by Josefsson [62], as described, used and/or modified in [1,2]. See [3] for details.

G025. KASM

This is the modified Kasten model [63] according to [4].

G026. Kasten

This is another modification of the original Kasten model [63], this time following [2,64]. T_L is obtained from Eq. (1).

G027. King

This model uses the broadband transmittances and turbidity functions according to King and Buckius [19] and Buckius and King [65]. The former reference provides an expression that can be used to calculate direct irradiance [25]. In the latter reference, the diffuse irradiance is to be calculated from its Eq. (36), but two free parameters remain, namely κ_L and a_1 . For this investigation, the function κ_L has been fitted to the numerical values provided in [65] for five discrete values of β , such as

$$\kappa_L = 0.8336 + 0.17257\beta - 0.64595 \exp(-7.4296\beta^{1.5}) \quad (4)$$

Similarly, the value of coefficient a_1 was only described as varying between 0 and 1. The average value $a_1 = 0.5$ is assumed here in the absence of more specific indications.

G028. KZHW

This model was proposed by Krarti et al. [64] as a combination of those of Zhang and Huang [66] for global radiation and

Watanabe et al. [67] for the direct/diffuse component separation. The empirical coefficients as modified in [64] are used here.

G029. MAC

The McMaster model of Davies et al. [60] was later used and/or modified in [1,2,68]. The formulation (particularly for the Rayleigh and aerosol transmittances) used here is as described in [1]. A corrected Rayleigh transmittance expression is used here since it was misprinted in the latter report. For more details, see [3,10].

G030. Machler

This is the model proposed by Machler and Iqbal [69].

G031. METSTAT

This is a modified version of Bird's model (entry G007 above) according to Maxwell [70]. For more details, and how to evaluate the Unsworth–Monteith turbidity coefficient it uses, see [3,10,25].

G032. MRM4

This model is described by Muneer et al. [71] and Kambezidis [72]. The numerical coefficients considered here are for the USA and southern Europe, as given in [73, p. 73]. For more details, and a discussion of this model's shortcomings, see [25,74].

G033. MRM5

More than a mere revision of MRM4 (entry G032 just above), this is actually a completely different algorithm. It is adapted here from Fortran code, version 5, by Kambezidis and Psiloglou [75,76]. Ozone, precipitable water, Angstrom's coefficient β and albedo are the input variables here, as discussed in [10].

G034. Nijegorodov

This model [77] uses the air mass formula from Nijegorodov and Luhanga [78] and transmittance expressions from Bird's model (entry G007 above). It is assumed here that the Earth radius is 6367 km and that the effective atmosphere thickness is 29.7 km.

G035. NRCC

The original model by Belcher and DeGaetano [79,80] was slightly modified according to personal communications with Belcher [81], as discussed in [10].

G036. Paltridge

This is the empirical model of Paltridge and Platt [82].

G037. Perrin

This is the broadband model of Perrin de Brichambaut and Vauge [83], as discussed in [25].

G038. PR

A part of this model is described in Psiloglou et al. [84]. However, the aerosol transmittance expression is here from the REST model [25] per Psiloglou's request [85], with the purpose to improve the model's performance. The new acronym stands for "Psiloglou-REST".

G039. PSIM

This model is described by Gueymard [74] and its performance for direct irradiance predictions was discussed in [25,74].

G040. REST250

This is version 5.0 of the REST2 model, as described by Gueymard [86].

G041. Rodgers

This model uses the Unsworth–Monteith turbidity coefficient. It is described by Rodgers et al. [87]. See also [25].

G042. RSC

Carroll [88] combined earlier algorithms by Robinson [89] and Sellers [90] to derive this model, hence its acronym.

G043. Santamouris

This model is based on atmospheric transmittances from Psiloglou et al. [84] (entry G029 above), following the advice of Dr. Santamouris [91]. A pressure correction was added where needed for consistency, as also discussed in [25].

G044. Schulze

This model was proposed by Schulze [92].

G045. Sharma

This empirical model was proposed by Sharma and Pal [93]. They used a solar constant of $2 \text{ cal}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ min})$, which is replaced here by the more recent value of $1366.1 \text{ W}/\text{m}^2$ [14].

G046. Watt

This model was proposed by Watt [94], and its performance was studied by Bird and Hulstrom [24]. These authors, however, seem to have misinterpreted some equations, due to Watt's non-explicit use of the decimal logarithm. This can explain the subpar performance results of the Bird and Hulstrom study. The required extinction layer heights are derived here from the original author's Fig. 4.0.2. A fixed stratospheric turbidity of 0.02 is assumed.

G047. Wesely

This model by Wesely and Lipschutz [95,96] uses visibility, which is derived here from Angstrom's β coefficient by using the formula of [19] in reverse mode.

G048. Yang

The original model of Yang et al. [97] is used here with the corrections described in [25], which were eventually included in a later description of the model [98].

G049. Zhang

The model proposed by Zhang et al. [66,99] described site-specific coefficients empirically derived from radiation measurements in China. For this study, the average of the coefficients tabulated for 24 sites [99] was rather used for improved universality. The model's Gompertz function that separates the direct and diffuse components appeared to generate unphysical values, which was caused by its coefficient a_4 being misprinted. The correct value (2.99) is used here [100].

G050. HS

This is a combination between the model by Haurwith [101,102] to predict direct irradiance and the model by Schulze [92] to predict diffuse irradiance.

G051. ABCGS

This is a combination between the model by Adnot–Bourges–Campana–Gicquel [103] to predict direct irradiance and the model by Schulze [92] to predict diffuse irradiance.

G052. Paulescu and Schlett

In this model by Paulescu and Schlett [104], the value $\gamma = 0.5$ is adopted here to approximate a Rayleigh atmosphere, based on the suggestion by Paulescu [105].

G053. Janjai

This model is based on publications by Janjai [106] and Janjai and Sricharoen [107].

G054. REST281

This is version 8.1 of REST2 model, which contains a few corrections compared to the entry G040 above and the original description by Gueymard [86]. For more details on this model see Gueymard [10].

3. Input data

The input data depends on model. Table 1 shows the input parameters needed by all models while Table 2 shows the entries needed by each model. The input data have been organized in several databases as described next.

3.1. Solar radiation measurements

The solar radiation database consists of global and diffuse hourly irradiation measured by using Kipp & Zonen radiometers in Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest-Afumati (see Table 3 for geographic coordinates). A Kipp & Zonen CM11 device is operating at Bucharest-Afumati station while the Cluj-Napoca station is provided with CM6B devices. The measurement uncertainty is $\pm 3\%$ for

Table 1
Input data for models used in this work.

Symbol	Meaning
Astronomical	
Year	Number of year
Month	Number of the month in the year (1 to 12)
Day	Number of day in the month (1 to 31)
h	Hour (UTC)
δ	Sun declination (deg.)
z	Zenith angle (deg.)
E_{sc}	Solar constant (W/m^2)
E_{n0}	Extraterrestrial irradiance (W/m^2), corrected for the actual sun-earth distance
m_K	Kasten's air mass
m_{KY}	Kasten & Young's air mass
Geographical	
λ	Latitude (deg)
φ	Longitude (deg)
h_g	Site's elevation (meter)
ρ_g	Ground albedo
Meteorological (surface)	
p	Surface air pressure (hPa)
T	Air temperature, dry-bulb (K)
ΔT	dry-bulb temperature T at time t , $T(t)$, $-T(t - 3 \text{ h})$
U	Surface air relative humidity (%)
W	Wind speed (m/s)
Meteorological (column integrated)	
u_o	Reduced ozone vertical pathlength (atm-cm)
u_N	Total NO_2 vertical pathlength (atm-cm)
w	Precipitable water (cm)
Quantities related to atmospheric turbidity	
α	Angstrom wavelength exponent
β	Angstrom turbidity
α_1	Angstrom wavelength exponent for <700 nm
α_2	Angstrom wavelength exponent for >700 nm
ϖ_1	Aerosol single-scattering albedo, <700 nm
ϖ_2	Aerosol single-scattering albedo, >700 nm
T_{L1}	Linke turbidity estimated by using Page/Remund method [47]
T_{L2}	Linke turbidity estimated by using Ineichen method [7]
T_{L3}	Linke turbidity estimated from the empirical formula of Dogniaux [50] as a function of precipitable water and Angstrom's beta coefficient
T_{L4}	Linke turbidity estimated from the average of four linear relationships between Angstrom's beta coefficient and Linke turbidity by Hinzpeter [29], Katz et al. [30], Abdelrahman et al. [31] and Grenier et al. [32].
τ_a	Unsworth–Monteith broadband turbidity coefficient
τ_{700}	Aerosol optical depth at 700 nm, dimensionless
vis	Visibility (km)

CM11 and $\pm 5\%$ for CM6B. The temperature dependence of sensitivity is $\pm 1\%$ for CM11 and $\pm 2\%$ for CM6B, on the interval -20 to $+40^\circ\text{C}$. On a monthly basis the bias for CM6B ranges between -2% and $+0.9\%$ [108]. The radiometers are checked twice per week and cleaned when necessary.

The measurement methodology is provided by standard procedures prepared at the Romanian National Meteorological Administration. Measurements are performed as follows. Solar irradiance (units: W/m^2) is measured at 1-min intervals. The series of irradiance values are averaged over 10 min, 60 min and 1440 min, respectively. Irradiation values (units: J) for 10 min, 1 h and 24 h are obtained by multiplying the appropriate average irradiance values by the appropriate time duration. The integration interval starts $\frac{1}{2}$ hour before the time stamp in the files and ends $\frac{1}{2}$ hour after that time stamp. Central European Time is used in the files.

The radiometers are calibrated once per year through shaded–unshaded measurements in clear sky days and through direct irradiance measurements on a horizontal surface with reference to the Linke–Feussner etalon actinometer. The Linke–Feussner etalon is calibrated with reference to the national etalon, i.e. an Angstrom 702 pirheliometer with electric compensation. The

national etalon is calibrated once at five years with reference to the World Radiometric Reference at Davos (Swiss).

Partial sky obstructions or shading of the sensors by natural or artificial structures is low and is not considered. There are less than 0.1% missing or suspicious data.

3.2. Surface meteorological data

Meteorological data measured in all stations of Table 3 are used in this study. A few details follow. In case of Bucharest, some of the meteorological variables are measured at Bucharest-Baneasa station, whereas other parameters are measured at Bucharest-Afumatii station. Sunshine duration is calculated from solar radiation by using the World Meteorological Organization sunshine criterion [109]. This stipulates that the “sun is shining” if the global solar irradiance measured perpendicular on sun's rays exceeds $120 W/m^2$. Sunshine data are recorded hourly. Daily totals are also computed. Measurements are reported in tens of an hour.

3.3. Column integrated data

3.3.1. Ozone

Long-term measurements of column-integrated ozone are performed in Romania once per day at a single station (Bucharest-Baneasa). Measurements are performed usually in the interval 0900–1400 (Eastern European Time). There are missing days in the recordings (Saturdays, Sundays as well as other days). The WOUDC archive provides data for Bucharest during 1980–2006. Ozone data measured in 2009 are used here (see Fig. S1 of [11]).

3.3.2. Precipitable water

Data for column-integrated precipitable water are available from two stations. Radiosonde measurements are performed twice daily at Bucharest-Baneasa (0000 and 1200 UTC) and once daily at Cluj-Napoca (0000 UTC). Daily measurements for precipitable water performed during 2009 at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest-Baneasa (see Figs. S2 and S3 in [11]).

3.4. Satellite derived data

3.4.1. Surface albedo

The ground albedo is obtained for all stations from satellite images on a monthly basis and 15-km spatial resolution. We have used the Surface Albedo (SAL) product of the Satellite Applications Facility on Climate Monitoring (CM-SAF) (<http://www.cmsaf.eu>), which is part of the EUMETSAT distributed ground segment. The product line covers broadband albedo products from the SEVIRI instrument aboard Meteosat-9 [110]. No information about topography or terrain roughness around the weather stations was included in the input data files at this stage. Figs. S4 and S5 of [11] show monthly albedo information for Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest-Baneasa, respectively, as observed during 2009.

3.4.2. Atmospheric turbidity data

For each station under scrutiny, the Ångström turbidity coefficients α and β , as well as the aerosol single-scattering albedo ϖ , are obtained from world datasets [111]. These are climatological (long-term monthly average) values, whereas daily values would ideally be necessary. These datasets actually provide the aerosol optical depth at 550 nm, τ_{a550} , rather than β . The latter must therefore be calculated from Ångström's Law:

$$\beta = \tau_{a550} \cdot 0.55^\alpha \quad (5)$$

Data files containing values of α , τ_{a550} and ϖ are the primary databases that are used here to evaluate aerosol extinction in those models that take it into account. Data is gridded at $1 \times 1^\circ$ resolution,

Table 2
Input data for tested models.

Model number	Model name	z	m	ρ_g	p	T	U	W	vis	w	u_o	u_n	α	β	τ_a	T_L	ϖ
G001	ASHRAE72	X															
G002	ASHRAE05	X															
G003	Badescu	X	X		X					X	X						
G004	Bashasu	X	X		X					X				X			
G005	BCLSM	X	X							X							
G006	Biga	X															
G007	Bird	X	X	X	X					X	X		X	X			
G008	CEM	X		X	X					X					X		
G009	Chandra	X														X	
G010	CLS	X	X	X	X					X							
G011	CPCR2	X		X	X					X	X		X	X			X
G012	Dognio	X	X		X											X	
G013	DPPLT	X															
G014	ESRA1	X	X		X											X	
G015	ESRA2	X	X		X											X	
G016	ESRA3	X	X		X											X	
G017	ESRA4	X	X		X											X	
G018	HLJ	X															
G019	Ideria	X	X		X					X			X	X			
G020	Ineich	X			X					X					X		
G021	IqbalA	X	X	X	X	X				X	X		X	X			
G022	IqbalB	X	X	X	X	X				X	X			X			
G023	IqbalC	X	X	X	X	X				X	X		X	X			
G024	Josefs	X	X	X	X					X							
G025	KASM	X	X		X					X							
G026	Kasten	X	X		X											X	
G027	King	X	X	X	X					X				X			
G028	KZHW	X				X	X	X									
G029	MAC	X		X	X	X				X							
G030	Machler	X			X				X	X							
G031	METSTAT	X	X	X	X					X	X				X		
G032	MRM4	X	X		X					X	X						
G033	MRM5	X	X	X	X					X	X			X			
G034	Nijego	X	X		X	X				X	X		X	X			
G035	NRCC	X			X			X		X							
G036	Paltri	X															
G037	Perrin	X	X		X					X	X			X			
G038	PR	X	X	X	X					X	X			X			
G039	PSIM	X		X	X					X				X			
G040	REST250	X		X	X					X	X	X	X	X			X
G041	Rodger	X			X					X					X		
G042	RSC	X	X	X	X					X				X			
G043	Santa	X	X	X	X					X	X						
G044	Schulz	X															
G045	Sharma	X															
G046	Watt	X	X	X	X					X	X		X	X			
G047	WKB	X	X		X				X								
G048	Yang	X	X		X					X	X			X			
G049	Zhang	X				X	X										
G050	HS	X															
G051	ABCGS	X															
G052	Paulescu	X	X		X					X	X			X			
G053	Janjai	X	X		X					X	X		X	X			
G054	REST281	X		X	X					X	X	X	X	X			X

Table 3
Meteorological stations involved in this study.

Geographic Code	Station	Latitude (deg N)	Longitude (deg E)	Altitude (m)
430613	Bucharest-Afumati	44.50	26.21	90
430608	Bucharest-Baneasa	44.50	26.13	90
647334	Cluj-Napoca	46.78	23.57	417

and no correction for elevation is considered. Ideally, a much finer spatial resolution (such as 10 km \times 10 km) would be necessary for validation purposes, but this is currently not available. Figs. S4 and S5 in [11] show the monthly values of α , τ_{550} and ϖ at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest-Baneasa, respectively. Since no information about the inputs α_1 , α_2 , ϖ_1 and ϖ_2 in models G040 and G054 is available, the following approximations are used:

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$$

(6)

$$\varpi_1 = \varpi_2 = \varpi$$

(7)

The monthly data were smoothed to derive daily data.

3.5. Default values

The column-integrated nitrogen dioxide content is not measured. Constant values of 0.0002 atm cm over rural areas and

0.0005 atm cm over cities are assumed. The latter value is adopted here for both Bucharest and Cluj-Napoca.

4. Testing procedure

4.1. Compatibility between various input datasets

Since the input datasets come from various sources, it is important to check their compatibility.

4.1.1. Spatial compatibility of measurement datasets at Bucharest

Bucharest has three main meteorological stations, two of them being of importance here: Bucharest-Baneasa and Bucharest-Afumati. Most meteorological data used as input for testing the models at Bucharest are measured at Bucharest-Baneasa. However, the sunshine data come from Bucharest-Afumati. The two stations are 10.8 km away (see Fig. S6 of [11]). Although the relative sunshine might be different at the two stations, the testing procedure used here refers to clear days only. It is likely that the sky will be clear simultaneously at both stations, considering the short distance and homogeneous terrain. The same should be true for the meteorological variables measured at one station and used to model solar radiation at the other. Therefore it is anticipated that the distance issue will not significantly affect the results.

4.1.2. Time compatibility between measurements datasets

Most meteorological datasets are prepared with reference to UTC. Solar radiation datasets and relative sunshine are reported by using Central European Time. Time compatibility has been ensured between different datasets. We used different procedures to obtain time integrations of various quantities (such as relative sunshine and solar irradiation). A preprocessing of the data was therefore needed before it could be used for this study. The quantities were grouped according to their measurement time stamp and two or more files with input data were prepared for the same station; each file contains those measured quantities associated to the same measurement time.

4.1.3. Compatibility between datasets

Disagreement may exist between the two quantities related to the state of the sky: cloud cover amount C and relative sunshine σ (both quantities range between 0 and 1). Indeed, the cloud cover amount is an instantaneous quantity while the relative sunshine results by time integration. The sky might be clear at the estimation moment (hence $C=0$) while during the integration interval the sun may be covered by clouds from time to time, resulting a $\sigma < 1$ relative sunshine value. However, at Bucharest the disagreement between C and σ may be larger than usual because these two quantities are measured in two different locations.

4.2. Computation of various quantities

4.2.1. Astronomical quantities

Irradiance is a strong function of the solar zenith angle, Z . Most models take the solar geometry into account through the relative air mass, m , rather than Z . The specific relationship between m and Z recommended by each model is used here. Computations were performed only for $Z < 85^\circ$ to avoid inaccuracies resulting from possible horizon shading or experimental cosine errors, for instance.

4.2.2. Atmospheric turbidity parameters

A more elaborate value of the Angstrom turbidity coefficient β is used in computation. A first estimate of the Angstrom turbidity

(say $\hat{\beta}$) is computed by using Eq. (5). Next, the modal value β is calculated from

$$\beta = \frac{\hat{\beta}(0.83212 + 3.2104\hat{\beta})}{1 + 5.852\hat{\beta}^{0.75}} \quad (8)$$

Some models use a special value of β that corresponds to an α value fixed at 1.3. It is calculated here by using Eq. (5) with $\alpha = 1.3$. These various inputs used by different models to evaluate the effects of aerosols are shown in Table 2. No elevation correction is needed since all locations are low altitude.

The parameter β_2 for models G040 and G054 corresponds to α determined from spectral measurements of aerosol optical depth (AOD) for wavelengths between 700 and 1000 nm. Since no information about β_2 is available, the following approximation is used:

$$\beta_2 = \beta \quad (9)$$

A simplified way of characterizing the optical depth of aerosols is through a broadband turbidity index. Well-known examples of such are the Linke turbidity factor, T_L , and the broadband aerosol optical depth (BAOD), τ_a , also known as the Unsworth–Monteith coefficient. These indicators are input for some models as shown in Table 2.

4.3. Accuracy indicators

One considers n couples of measured and computed values, denoted m_i and c_i ($i = 1, n$), respectively. The mean values of these measured and computed values are defined as:

$$\bar{m} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \quad (10)$$

$$\bar{c} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \quad (11)$$

For the i th couple, the difference between the predicted and the measured value is:

$$e_i = c_i - m_i \quad (12)$$

Note that this difference e_i has the same physical dimension as m_i and c_i . This difference would be an error if m_i could be considered the truth, which is obviously not the case, since all measurements have their own uncertainty.

The most common bulk performance statistics are the Mean Bias Error (MBE) and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) which are defined as

$$MBE = \frac{1}{n\bar{m}} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i \quad (13)$$

$$RMSE = \frac{1}{\bar{m}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \quad (14)$$

Eqs. (13) and (14) provide dimensionless quantities since their right hand side has been divided by the mean measured irradiance or irradiation. In what follows, they are expressed in percent for clarity.

4.4. Broad criteria for model performance

A model designed to compute hourly solar irradiation provides good performance if the MBE and RMSE have as low values as possible. The following quantitative recommendations are sometimes used [9]. For global irradiation, MBE within $\pm 10\%$ and RMSE $< 20\%$ indicate good fitting between model results and measurements.

For diffuse irradiation, a good fitting means MBE within $\pm 20\%$ and $RMSE < 30\%$.

Here more stringent criteria for model performance are adopted. A model to compute solar *global* hourly irradiation provides “good performance” if:

- the model is well calibrated (i.e. $-5\% < MBE < +5\%$) and
- the scatter in the results is such that $RMSE < 15\%$.

A model to compute solar *diffuse* hourly irradiation provides “good performance” if:

- it is well calibrated (i.e. $-10\% < MBE < +10\%$ and
- the scatter in the results is such that $RMSE < 30\%$).

5. Results and discussion

In the following we denote by σ the hourly relative sunshine (between 0 and 1) and by C the total cloud cover amount (between 0 and 1 – instantaneous quantity).

The testing procedure is performed in several stages intended to provide information about the sensitivity of the models to various sets of input data. Separate analyses are performed for Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest. In both cases, details are first provided about the available input data while the results are reported next. Finally, an overall conclusion about models’ performance is drawn.

5.1. Analysis for Cluj-Napoca

A first test (so called Stage 1) consisted of checking the procedure. A large number of subsequent tests have been performed for Cluj-Napoca by using data from 2009. The most relevant steps are reported here.

5.1.1. Input data

Stage 2

This testing stage is associated to the best available input data. Only data associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma=1$ were used. A total of 133 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Daily measurements for precipitable water performed once per day at 0.00 UTC at Cluj-Napoca were used. Daily measurements for ozone performed once per day at 12.00 UTC at Bucharest were used for Cluj-Napoca. For intermediate hours, precipitable water and ozone values were linearly interpolated between two consecutive measured values. Satellite data were used to derive monthly averaged values for albedo, α , τ_{550} and ϖ for Cluj-Napoca. Each value derived from satellite data was associated to the 15th day in a month. For intermediate days, values were linearly interpolated. A constant value is assumed during the day.

Stage 3

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to visual (direct) estimation of the state of the sky. Therefore, only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary. A few data points associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma=0$ exist. They may occur in clear days near the sunrise and sunset, when the global radiation is small and the WMO “sun shining” criterion may not work. Other input data are similar to those for Stage 2. A total of 166 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 4

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to (indirect) estimation of the state of the sky (i.e. by means of sunshine recordings). Indeed, the approximation $C=1-\sigma$ is sometimes used in literature when data on cloud cover amount is missing. Only data associated to $\sigma=1$ were used while the values of C are free to vary. Many of the cloud cover values

equal 0, as expected. However, positive values of C are also present. Such sort of situations may be imagined. Indeed, the sun may shine continuously for 1 h despite some parts of the sky being covered by clouds. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 2. A total of 775 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 5

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to ozone content in the atmosphere. A constant value $u_o = 0.3$ atm cm was assumed all over the year. Other input data are similar to those of Stage 2. A total of 133 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 6

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to precipitable water. The precipitable water content has been computed by using Leckner formula [112]. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 2. A total of 133 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 7

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to ground albedo. A constant value 0.2 has been used for the ground albedo all over the year. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 2. A total of 133 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 8

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to visual estimation of the state of the sky and ozone. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 5 (where a constant ozone value has been used as input). A total of 166 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 9

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to visual estimation of the state of the sky and precipitable water. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 6 (where the precipitable water has been computed by using Leckner’s formula [112]). A total of 166 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 10

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity to input data related to visual estimation of the state of the sky and ground albedo. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 7 (when a fixed value of ground albedo has been used). A total of 166 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 11

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are missing but surface measurement data are available. A constant ozone amount 0.3 atm cm has been assumed. Precipitable water has been computed by using Leckner formula [112]. A constant ground albedo value (0.2) has been assumed. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 2. A total of 133 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 12

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are missing and only visual information about the state of the sky exists. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 11. A total of 166 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 13

This testing stage is associated to the best available input data during the extended warm season (April–October). Only data associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma=1$ were used. Other input data are similar to

those used for Stage 2. A total of 129 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 14

This testing stage is associated to the best available input data during the extended cold season (November–March). Only data associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma=1$ were used. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 2. A total of 4 hourly recordings were used. Therefore, the results associated to this Stage should be taken with caution due to the small number of recordings.

Stage 15

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended warm season (April–October) to input data related to visual estimation of the state of the sky. Therefore, only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 3. A total of 161 hourly recordings were used.

Stage 16

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended cold season (November–March) to input data related to visual estimation of the state of the sky. Therefore, only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 3. A total of 5 hourly recordings were used.

Stage 17

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended warm season (April–October) to input data related to indirect estimation of the state of the sky. Only data associated to $\sigma=1$ were used in this stage while the values of C are free to vary. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 4. A total of 695 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 18

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended cold season (November–March) to input data related to indirect estimation of the state of the sky. Only data associated to $\sigma=1$ were used in this stage while the values of C are free to vary. Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 4. A total of 65 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 19

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are missing but surface measurement data are available for the extended warm season (April–October). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 11. A total of 129 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 20

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are missing but surface measurement data are available during the extended cold season (November–March). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 11. A total of 4 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 21

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended warm season (April–October) when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are missing but visual information about the state of the sky is available. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 12. A total of 161 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

Stage 22

This testing stage estimates models performance sensitivity during the extended cold season (November–March) when measurements about ozone, precipitable water and ground albedo are

missing but visual information about the state of the sky is available. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to those used for Stage 12. A total of 5 hourly recordings were used in calculations.

5.1.2. Results

Table 4 shows the models accuracy for computing global radiation at Cluj-Napoca. MBE is used as the main accuracy indicator. No model passed the testing stages 4, 17 and 18. This is not surprising since the catalogue contains clear sky models only and such sort of models has no input parameter associated to the state of the sky. Despite the filter $\sigma=1$ is imposed, the testing stages 4, 17 and 18 allow input data from days with cloudy sky (i.e. $C \neq 0$). Indeed, the sun may shine without intermittency for a whole hour, with some parts of the sky being covered by clouds.

Very simple clear sky models are defined as models which do not require meteorological data as input. Their input consists just of astronomic data. These models are G001, G002, G006, G013, G018, GC36, GC44, G045, G050, and G051 (see Table 2). Table 4 shows that very simple models as well as more complex models may belong to the category of “good models”. This is in agreement with previous knowledge about the performance of clear sky models to computing global irradiation [3,9,10].

Table 5 shows models stratification according to their accuracy for computing global radiation at Cluj-Napoca. The best models listed there fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE. However, MBE is used for ranking the models. No very simple model is ranked among the first three best models in the stage testing. A single partial exception exists: model G006 is the second best in Stage 18. But the RMSE criterion is not fulfilled for this Stage 18, as already pointed out.

Most of the worst performing models have rather complex input data sets (GC47, GC19, GC30, G005, G028, G010, G049). Only two very simple models are ranked among the worst three models per stage (G013 and G050).

Fig. 1 shows the number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. This way of classification stratified the models in several groups and the first eleven best groups are shown in Fig. 1. Nine models belong to the first three best groups. One of these models (i.e. G001) is a very simple model.

Table 6 shows the models accuracy for computing diffuse radiation at Cluj-Napoca. Again, MBE is used as the main accuracy indicator. No model passed the testing stages 4, 17 and 18. This mimics the case of computing global radiation (Table 4). However, the number of “good” models is smaller in case of computing diffuse radiation than global radiation (compare Tables 6 and 4, respectively). Indeed, only fourteen models gave good performance when computing diffuse radiation. Model G029 performs the best for most testing stages.

Table 7 shows models stratification according to their accuracy for computing diffuse radiation at Cluj-Napoca. The best models listed there fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE but MBE is used to rank the models. No single very simple model is ranked the first in the stage testing. Among the very simple models, G006 is ranked in the first three best for several testing stages. Also, G002 is ranked the third best for two testing stages. All the worst performing models have rather complex input data sets.

Fig. 2 shows the number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. This way of classification stratified the models in several groups and the first nine best groups are shown in Fig. 2. Twelve models belong to the first three best groups. Three of these models (i.e. G001, G002 and G006) are very simple models.

Table 4
Models' accuracy for computing solar global radiation at Cluj-Napoca.

[illegible]

Table 5
Models ranking according to their accuracy to compute global solar radiation at Cluj-Napoca. The best models fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE except for models whose number is underlined, which do not fulfill the RMSE criterion.

Stage	Ranking – best models			Ranking – worst models		
	1st	2nd	3rd	52nd	53rd	54th
2	53	52	35	13	47	19
3	32	53	3	5	47	19
4	28	<u>49</u>	<u>43</u>	50	13	19
5	52	35	53	13	47	19
6	53	52	35	13	47	19
7	53	52	35	13	47	19
8	32	45	52	5	47	19
9	32	53	3	5	47	19
10	32	53	3	5	47	19
11	52	53	35	13	47	19
12	32	3	53	5	47	19
13	53	52	35	13	47	19
14	14	15	54	30	19	47
15	53	32	52	5	47	19
16	12	40	41	28	49	47
17	<u>28</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>43</u>	50	13	19
18	<u>42</u>	6	<u>35</u>	10	19	47
19	52	53	35	13	47	19
20	14	15	24	49	30	47
21	32	53	3	5	47	19
22	11	41	12	28	49	47

5.2. Analysis for Bucharest

A large number of test stages have been performed for Bucharest by using 2009 data. The most relevant stages are reported here.

5.2.1. Input data

Stage 32

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 2. The differences are as follows. The precipitable water has been measured at Bucharest-Baneasa at 0.00 and 12.00 UTC. Daily measurements for ozone were performed at Bucharest at 12.00 UTC. Monthly averaged values for albedo, α , τ_{550} and ϖ for Bucharest have been used. A total of 324 hourly recordings were used during the analysis.

Stage 33

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 3. Only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary.

Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 391 hourly recordings were used in analysis.

Stage 34

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 4. Only data associated to $\sigma = 1$ were used in this stage while the values of C are free to vary. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 908 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 35

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 5. A constant value $u_0 = 0.3$ atm cm was assumed all over the year. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 324 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 36

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 6. The precipitable water content has been computed by using Leckner formula [112]. Other input data are similar to the input data

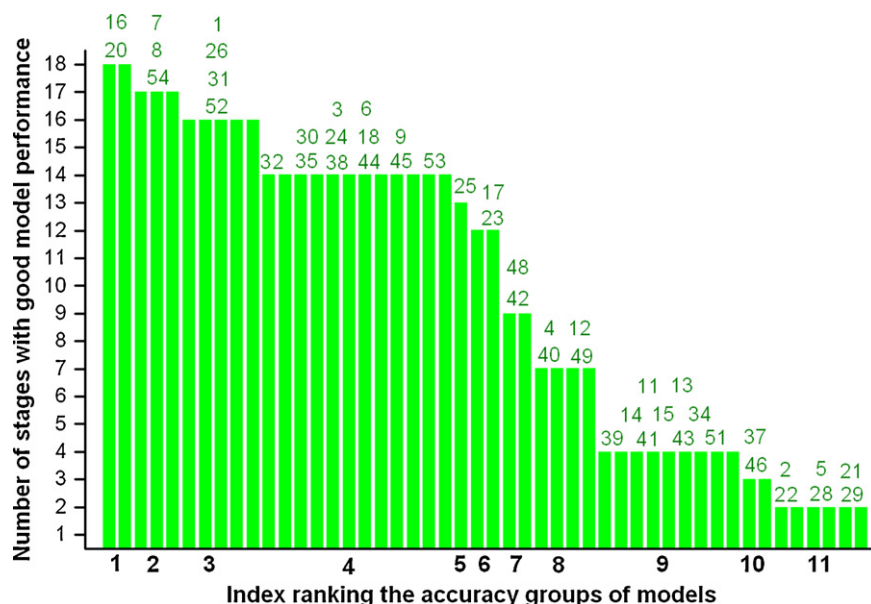


Fig. 1. Number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. The index ranking the accuracy groups of models is shown in ordinate. Global solar radiation at Cluj-Napoca is considered. The maximum number of testing stages is twenty-one.

Table 6
Models' accuracy for computing solar diffuse radiation at Cluj-Napoca.

Color	Meaning																					
	Good models (criteria for both MBE and RMSE are fulfilled)																					
	Best model according to MBE criterion; RMSE criterion is fulfilled																					
	Best model according to MBE criterion; RMSE criterion is not fulfilled																					
	Worst models according to MBE criterion																					
model	Stages																					
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
G001																						
G002																						
G003																						
G004																						
G005																						
G006																						
G007																						
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G053																						
G054																						

used for Stage 32. A total of 324 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 37

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 7. A constant value 0.2 this has been used for the ground albedo all over the year. Other input data are similar to the input data used for

Stage 32. A total of 324 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 38

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 8. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage

Table 7
Models ranking according to their accuracy to compute diffuse solar radiation at Cluj-Napoca. The best models fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE except for models whose number is underlined, which do not fulfill the RMSE criterion.

Stage	Ranking – best models			Ranking – worst models		
	1st	2nd	3rd	52nd	53rd	54th
2	29	6	<u>46</u>	30	32	19
3	29	6	<u>5</u>	30	32	19
4	<u>34</u>	3	<u>43</u>	22	32	19
5	29	6	<u>46</u>	30	32	19
6	29	6	<u>52</u>	30	32	19
7	29	6	<u>46</u>	30	32	19
8	29	6	<u>5</u>	30	32	19
9	29	6	54	30	32	19
10	29	6	<u>5</u>	30	32	19
11	29	6	14	30	32	19
12	29	6	52	30	32	19
13	29	6	<u>46</u>	30	32	19
14	21	27	2	42	53	30
15	29	6	<u>5</u>	30	32	19
16	25	21	27	30	42	53
17	<u>34</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>3</u>	22	32	19
18	<u>9</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>28</u>	37	42	53
19	29	14	6	30	32	19
20	21	27	2	32	42	30
21	29	6	14	30	32	19
22	25	21	27	32	30	42

35 (i.e. with a constant ozone value as input). A total of 391 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 39

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 9. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 36 (i.e. with precipitable water computed by using Leckner's formula [112]). A total of 391 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 40

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 10. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 37 (i.e. with fixed value of ground albedo). A total of 391 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 41

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 11. A constant ozone amount 0.3 atmcm has been assumed. Precipitable water has been computed by using Leckner formula [112]. A constant ground albedo value (0.2) has been assumed. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 324 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 42

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 12. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 41. A total of 391 hourly recordings were used in computation.

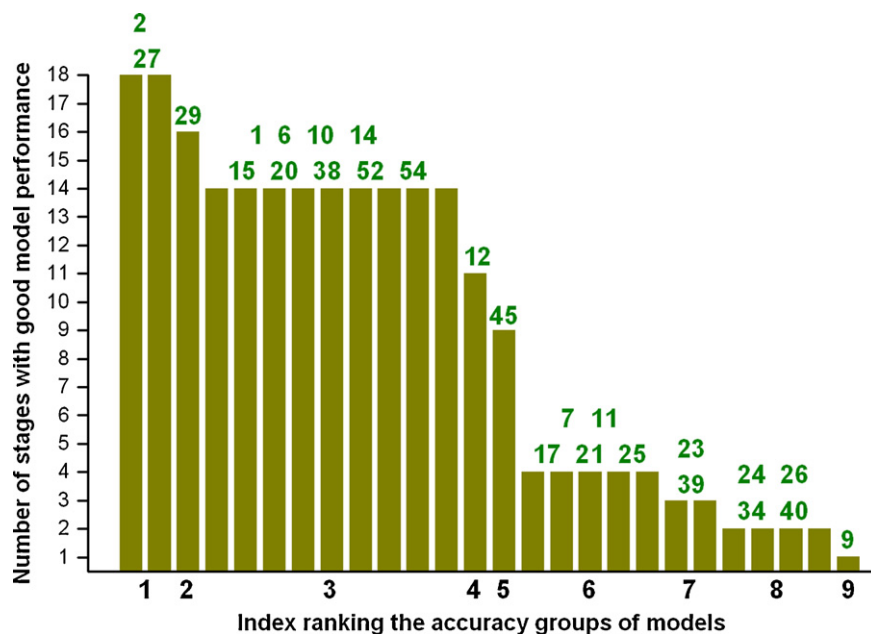


Fig. 2. Same as Fig. 1, for diffuse solar radiation at Cluj-Napoca.

Table 8
Models accuracy for computing solar global radiation at Bucharest.

Color	Meaning																				
	Good models (criteria for both MBE and RMSE are fulfilled)																				
	Best model at that Stage according to MBE criterion; RMSE criterion is fulfilled																				
	Best model at that Stage according to MBE criterion; RMSE criterion is not fulfilled																				
	Worst models at that Stage according to MBE criterion																				
model	Stages																				
	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52
G001																					
G002																					
G003																					
G004																					
G005																					
G006																					
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Stage 43

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 13. Only data associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma = 1$ were used. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 289 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 44

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 14. Only data associated to $C=0$ and $\sigma = 1$ were used. Other input data are

similar to the input data used for Stage 32. A total of 35 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 45

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 15. Only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 33. A total of 328 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Table 9
Models ranking according to their accuracy to compute global solar radiation at Bucharest. The best models fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE except for models whose number is underlined, which do not fulfill the RMSE criterion.

Stage	Ranking – best models			Ranking – worst models		
	1st	2nd	3rd	52nd	53rd	54th
32	53	3	32	13	47	19
33	8	54	45	5	19	47
34	9	<u>42</u>	43	5	47	19
35	32	3	16	13	47	19
36	20	16	32	5	47	19
37	53	3	32	13	47	19
38	54	8	45	5	19	47
39	31	33	45	5	19	47
40	8	54	45	5	19	47
41	20	16	32	5	47	19
42	53	45	17	5	19	47
43	16	3	30	13	47	19
44	3	45	52	30	19	47
45	54	33	17	5	47	19
46	31	25	36	30	19	47
47	<u>43</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>18</u>	5	13	19
48	<u>44</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>43</u>	50	47	19
49	53	30	8	5	47	19
50	3	52	45	30	19	47
51	33	31	38	5	47	19
52	25	31	54	19	30	47

Stage 46

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 16. Only data associated to $C=0$ were used while the values of σ are free to vary. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 33. A total of 63 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 47

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 17. Only data associated to $\sigma = 1$ were used in this stage while the values of C are free to vary. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 34. A total of 874 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 48

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 18. Only data associated to $\sigma = 1$ were used in this stage while the values of C are

free to vary. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 34. A total of 95 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 49

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 18. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 41. A total of 289 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 50

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 19. Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 41. A total of 35 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 51

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 21. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for

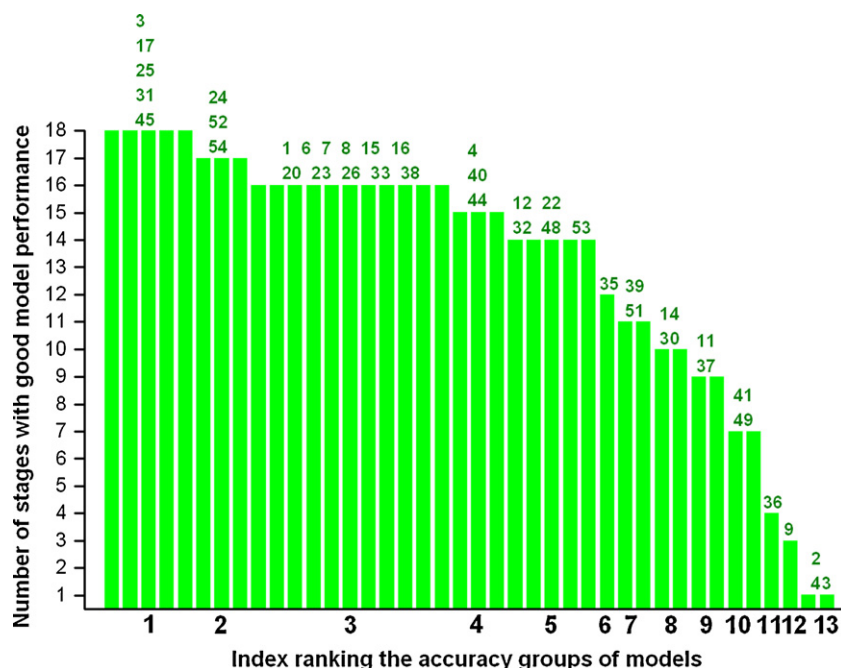


Fig. 3. Same as Fig. 1 for global solar radiation at Bucharest.

Table 10
Models accuracy for computing solar global radiation at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest.

Color	Meaning																					
	Models obeying both criteria (MBE and RMSE) in both localities																					
	Models which are simultaneously the best in both localities																					
	Models which are simultaneously the worst in both localities																					
model	Stages (Cluj-Napoca/Bucarest)																					
	2 32	3 33	4 34	5 35	6 36	7 37	8 38	9 39	10 40	11 41	12 42	13 43	14 44	15 45	16 46	17 47	18 48	19 49	20 50	21 51	22 52	
G001																						
G002																						
G003																						
G004																						
G005																						
G006																						
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Stage 42. A total of 328 hourly recordings were used in computation.

Stage 52

This testing stage is similar in most aspects to Stage 22. Only data for $C=0$ were used (i.e. the values of the sunshine fraction are free to vary). Other input data are similar to the input data used for Stage 52. A total of 63 hourly recordings were used in computation.

5.2.2. Results

Table 8 shows the models accuracy for computing global radiation at Bucharest. MBE is used as the main accuracy indicator. There is obvious similarity with the results obtained for Cluj-Napoca (compare Tables 8 and 4). First, no model passed the testing stages 4, 17 and 18. Second, very simple models as well as more complex models may belong to the category of “good

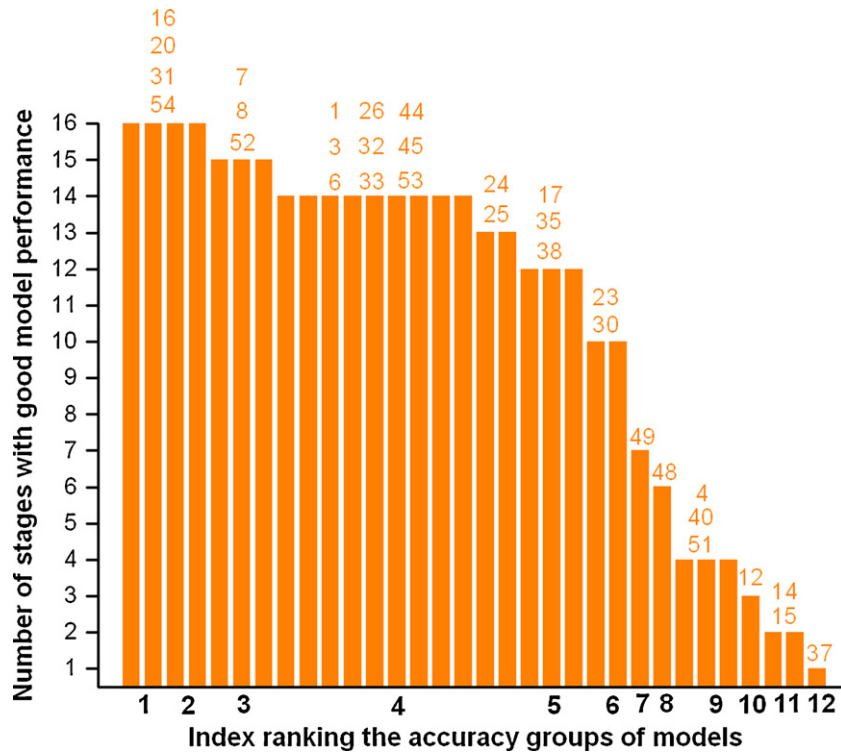


Fig. 4. Same as Fig. 1 for global solar radiation at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest.

models". Third, models G019 and G047 perform the worst in both cases.

However, visual inspection shows that generally a given model performs better at Bucharest than at Cluj-Napoca (the number of testing stages with accuracy criteria fulfilled is generally larger at Bucharest than at Cluj-Napoca). Also, the category of best models per stage has generally different members in the two locations. Only models G032 and G053 belong to this category in Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest. The other members are G011, G012, G014 and G052 at Cluj-Napoca and G003, G008, G016, G020, G025, G031, G033 and G054 at Bucharest.

Table 9 shows models stratification according to their accuracy for computing global radiation at Bucharest. The best models listed

there fulfill the performance criteria for both MBE and RMSE indicators. However, MBE is used there to rank the models.

The very simple model G045 is ranked the second best in stage 44 and the third best in several other stages. Also, the very simple model G036 is ranked the third best at stage 46. This is different from Cluj-Napoca where no single very simple model is ranked among the first three best in the stage testing (see Table 5). Similarly to Cluj-Napoca, the worst performing models are G019 and G047. Among other models ranked between positions 52 and 54 one finds models with complex input dataset but also very simple models (G050 for instance).

Fig. 3 shows the number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. This way

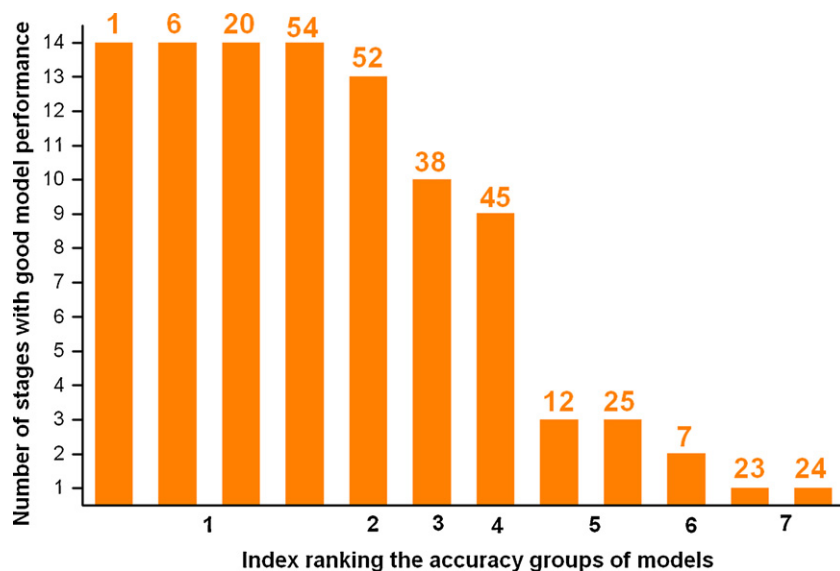


Fig. 5. Same as Fig. 1 for global solar radiation (at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest) and diffuse solar radiation (at Cluj-Napoca).

Table 11

Models accuracy for computing global radiation (at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest) and diffuse radiation (at Cluj-Napoca).

Color	Meaning																					
	Models obeying both criteria (MBE and RMSE) in both localities																					
	Models which are simultaneously the worst in both localities																					
model	Stages (Cluj-Napoca/Bucarest)																					
	2 32	3 33	4 34	5 35	6 36	7 37	8 38	9 39	10 40	11 41	12 42	13 43	14 44	15 45	16 46	17 47	18 48	19 49	20 50	21 51	22 52	
G001																						
G002																						
G003																						
G004																						
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of classification stratified the models in several groups and the first thirteen best groups are shown in Fig. 3. Seventeen models belong to the first three best groups. This number is larger than the similar number for Cluj-Napoca (compare Figs. 3 and 1, respectively). Three of the models belonging to the first three best groups (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models. This has to be compared with the case of Cluj-Napoca, where only one very simple model (G001) belongs to the first three best groups (see Fig. 1).

5.3. Overall analysis for Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest

An overview of results obtained in both localities is useful. Table 10 shows the models accuracy for computing global radiation at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest. MBE is used as the main accuracy indicator.

First, no model passed the testing stages 4/34, 17/47 and 18/48. This is a consequence of the results shown in Tables 4 and 8.

Second, four very simple models (i.e. G001, G006, G044 and G045) are good models for some particular stages. Third, models G019 and G047 perform the worst for most stages in both localities. Just two models (G032 and G053) are the best in the two locations, for similar testing stages (i.e. Stages 5/35 for G032 and 2/32 and 7/37 for G053).

Fig. 4 shows the number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. This way of classification stratified the models in several groups and the first twelve best groups are shown in Fig. 4. Sixteen models belong to the first three best groups. This number is between the similar numbers for Cluj-Napoca (Fig. 1) and Bucharest (Fig. 3), respectively. However, note that the best three groups in Figs. 1 and 3 refers to 18, 17 and 16 testing stages passed by a given model, respectively, while in Fig. 4 the best three groups refer to 16, 15 and 14 testing stages passed by a given model, respectively. Three models belonging to the first three best groups in Fig. 4 (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models.

Table 11 shows the models accuracy for computing global radiation (at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest) and diffuse radiation (at Cluj-Napoca). MBE is used as the main accuracy indicator. First, no model passed the testing stages 4, 17 and 18. This is a consequence of the results shown in Tables 4 and 8. Second, some very simple models (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are good models for some particular stages. Third, model G019 perform the worst for most stages in both localities.

There is no single model performing the best in computing both global and diffuse radiation, in both localities, for similar testing stages.

Fig. 5 shows the number of testing stages per model with accuracy criteria fulfilled for both MBE and RMSE indicators. This way of classification stratified the models in several groups and the first seven best groups are shown in Fig. 5. Six models belong to the first three best groups. Note that the best three groups in Fig. 5 refers to 14, 13 and 10 testing stages passed by a given model, respectively. These are considerably low numbers. Compare them with the best three groups when computing global radiation in a single location (i.e. 18, 17 and 16 testing stages passed by a given model; see Figs. 1 and 3). Or, compare them with the best three groups when computing diffuse radiation in a single location (i.e. 18, 16 and 14 testing stages passed by a given model; see Figs. 2). Or, finally, compare them with the best three groups when computing global radiation in two locations (i.e. 16, 15 and 14 testing stages passed by a given model; see Fig. 4).

Three models belonging to the first three best groups in Fig. 5 (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models.

6. Conclusions

Fifty-four broad band models for computation of global and diffuse irradiance on horizontal surface were selected. These models were tested by using input data from two meteorological stations from Romania (South-Eastern Europe), i.e. Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest. The input data consist of surface meteorological data, column integrated data and data derived from satellite measurements. The testing procedure is performed in forty-two stages intended to provide information about the sensitivity of the models to various sets of input data.

Looking to the results for global radiation computation at Cluj-Napoca, one sees that nine models belong to the first three best groups. One of these models (i.e. G001) is a very simple model. However, no single very simple model is ranked among the first three best models in the stage testing. In case of computing diffuse radiation, the number of “good” models is smaller than when computing global radiation. Also, no very simple model is ranked the

first best model in a particular testing stage. However, three models of the first nine best groups (i.e. G001, G002 and G006) are very simple models. Model G029 gives the best results to compute diffuse radiation for most testing stages. The best models for solar diffuse radiation computation are, on equal-footing, G002 and G027. The second best model is G029.

Looking to the results for global radiation computation at Bucharest, the models perform generally better than at Cluj-Napoca. Indeed, in Bucharest seventeen models belong to the first three best groups. But the category of best models per stage has generally different members in the two locations. Three of the models belonging to the first three best groups in Bucharest (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models.

Looking to the combined results for global radiation computation at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest, one sees that sixteen models belong to the first three best groups. Three models belonging to the first three best groups (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models. Only two models (G032 and G053) are the best in both locations, for one or two testing stages. The best models for solar global radiation computation are, on equal-footing, G016, G020, G031 and G054. The second best models are, on equal-footing, G007, G008 and G052.

Looking to the combined results for global and diffuse radiation computation at Cluj-Napoca and Bucharest, the following conclusions can be drawn. There is no single model performing the best in computing both global and diffuse radiation, in both localities, for similar testing stages. Six models belong to the first three best groups. Three models belonging to the first three best groups in Fig. 5 (i.e. G001, G006 and G045) are very simple models. The best models for computation of both global and diffuse radiation are, on equal-footing, G001, G006, G020 and G054. The second best model is G052.

We may conclude that models' accuracy depends on the set of input data. There is no model to be ranked “the best” for all sets of input data. Very simple models as well as more complex models may belong to the category of “good models” but generally the last models perform better.

Detailed information about the performance of each model is provided in [11,12].

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